

1 Remedial dosing recommendations for delayed or missed doses of valproic acid

2 in patients with epilepsy based on Monte Carlo simulations

3 Chen-yu Wang^a; Zheng Jiao^{a, b*}; Jun-jie Ding^c; Er-qian Yu^{a, d}; Guo-xing Zhu^e

⁴ ^a Department of Pharmacy, Huashan Hospital, Fudan University, Shanghai, 200040, P.R.China

⁵ ^b Department of Pharmacy, Shanghai Chest Hospital, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, 200030,
⁶ Shanghai, P.R.China

⁷ ^c World Wide Antimalarial Resistance Network, Centre for Tropical Medicine and Global Health,

8 Nuffield Department of Medicine, Oxford University, Oxford, OX1 2JD, UK

⁹ ^d Department of Pharmacy, The First Affiliated Hospital of Wenzhou Medical University, Wenzhou,
¹⁰ Zhejiang, 325000, P.R.China

11 ^e Department of Neurology, H

11 ^e Department of Neurology, Huashan Hospital, Fudan University, Shanghai, 200040, P.R.China.

12

13 *Corresponding author:

14 Zheng Jiao, Professor

15 ¹Department of Pharmacy, Huashan Hospital of Fudan University

16 12 Urumqi Middle Road, Shanghai, China, 200040,

17 ²Department of Pharmacy, Shanghai Chest Hospital, Shanghai Jiao Tong University

18 241 Huaihai West Road, Shanghai, China, 200030

19 Tel.: +86 (21) 2220 0000

20 E-mail: jiaozhen@online.sh.cn;

21 ORCID: 0000-0001-7999-7162

22 **Abstract**

23 **Objective:** Delayed or missed doses are unavoidable in the pharmacotherapy of epilepsy and
24 significantly compromise the efficacy of antiepileptic drug treatment. An inappropriate remedial
25 regimen can cause seizure relapse or serious adverse events. This study investigated the effect of
26 delayed or missed doses on the pharmacokinetics (PK) of valproic acid (VPA) in patients with epilepsy
27 and established remedial dosing recommendations for non-adherent patients.

28 **Methods:** Monte Carlo simulations are based on all previous population pharmacokinetic models for
29 paediatric, adult and elderly patients with epilepsy. The following four remedial strategies were
30 investigated for each delayed dose: A) A partial dose or a regular dose is taken immediately, a regular
31 dose is taken at the next scheduled time. B) The delayed dose was administered immediately, followed
32 by a partial dose at the next scheduled time. C) The delayed dose and a partial dose are taken, the next
33 scheduled time is skipped, and resume the regular regimen. D) Double doses are taken when missed one
34 dose or two doses and resume the regular regimen at the subsequent scheduled time.

35 **Results:** The recommended remedial dose was related to the delay duration and daily dose. Remedial
36 dosing strategies A and B were almost equivalent, whereas Strategy C was recommended when the
37 delayed dose was close to the next scheduled dose. Strategy D was only suggested for delayed two
38 doses.

39 **Conclusion:** Simulations provide quantitative insight into the remedial regimens for non-adherent
40 patients, and clinicians should select the optimal regimen for each patient based on the individual's
41 status.

42 **Key words:** Epilepsy; Valproic acid; Non-adherence; Monte Carlo simulation; Remedial dose;
43 Population pharmacokinetic
44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 Epilepsy is one of the most common and disabling neurological disorders and requires long-term
47 sometimes even lifelong antiepileptic drug (AED) treatment [1]. Adherence to the prescribed regimen
48 is an important issue in the control of seizures [2]. Delayed or missed doses often occur in the treatment
49 of patients with epilepsy [3]. It has been reported that approximately 30%–50% of patients with
50 epilepsy are non-adherent to their prescribed AED therapies, and more than 70% of respondents in one
51 study reported missed AED doses [4, 5]. Such non-adherence can lead to sub-therapeutic drug
52 concentrations and increase the risk of seizures [4]. Excessive remedial doses may lead to clinical
53 toxicity, with effects including somnolence, heart block and deep coma[6].

54 Valproic acid (VPA) is a broad-spectrum AED used in the treatment of both generalized and focal
55 seizures [7-9]. This drug is also used in combination with other AEDs in patients with multiple seizure
56 types [6]. As required by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA), the package insert of VPA
57 (Depakote ER®) carries the following recommendation: “If a dose is missed, it should be taken as soon
58 as possible, unless it is almost time for the next dose. If a dose is skipped, the patient should not double
59 the next dose” [6]. However, no clear remedial dose regimen is provided for the missed dose.
60 Moreover, no comprehensive evaluation of the effect of non-adherence and the corresponding remedial
61 dosing regimens has been performed.

62 Prospective studies in patients whose medications are intentionally delayed or interrupted for
63 experimental purposes may not be acceptable for ethical reasons [10, 11]. In addition, retrospective
64 data are difficult to collect accurately. Monte Carlo simulation based on population pharmacokinetic
65 (PPK) models provides the most appropriate means to investigate the effect of delayed or missed doses
66 [12-15]. This method is widely accepted for the development of treatment protocols, avoiding
67 unnecessary clinical studies.

68 Computer simulation based on population pharmacokinetics modelling provides the most
69 appropriate means to investigate the influence of delayed or missed doses [12]. This study aims to
70 investigate the effects of delayed or missed doses on the pharmacokinetics of VPA and to provide
71 practical recommendations for patients by Monte Carlo simulation.

72 **2 Materials and Methods**

73 **2.1 Typical patients and dose regimens**

74 The characteristics of typical patients and the corresponding investigated dose regimen were based
75 on the following criteria: (1) all patients were assumed to receive VPA monotherapy; (2) the dose regimen
76 was selected according to the FDA-approved label and the treatment guidelines published by
77 International League Against Epilepsy [16], including the formulation, dose strength and dosing interval;
78 (3) the weight of paediatric patients was based on the World Health Organization Child Growth Standards
79 [17], and the weight of adult and elderly patients was fixed at 70 kg.

80 **2.2 Population pharmacokinetic characteristics for Monte Carlo simulations**

81 The PPK characteristics for the simulations and further investigations were extracted from previous
82 studies. A systematic review of PPK studies published before 30 Nov. 2019 was conducted using PubMed
83 and Embase. The relevant identification, screening and assessment steps followed the Preferred
84 Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses statement [18].

85 Published studies were included if they (1) evaluated patients receiving valproate and (2) had
86 complete PPK parameters. The studies were excluded if they (1) were reviews or focused only on
87 methodology, (2) were published in non-English language articles, or (3) contained data or cohorts
88 overlapping with those of another included study. In the case of such an overlap, only the most recent
89 study or the one with the largest sample size was included. The reference lists of all selected articles were
90 also evaluated.

91 The following PPK parameters were collected from each identified study: apparent clearance
 92 (CL/F), apparent volume of distribution (V/F), absorption rate (k_a), and corresponding between-subject
 93 variability and residual variability. The demographic characteristics of the study cohorts were also
 94 extracted.

95 **2.3 Monte Carlo simulation**

96 Monte Carlo simulations with nested random effects were conducted using the \$SIMULATION
 97 block in the NONMEM software (Version 7.4; Icon Incorporation, PA, USA) with the
 98 ONLYSIMULATION and SUBPROBLEMS options. Post-processing of the output was performed in R
 99 (version 3.4.0, www.r-project.com).

100 VPA time-concentration profiles were simulated based on 1000 virtual patients. These fully
 101 adherent patients were assumed to have complete seizure control without undesired effects or, if that
 102 goal was not achievable, the best compromise between seizure suppression and concentration-related
 103 adverse effects [19]. Concentration-time profiles of VPA were generated using the PPK parameters
 104 extracted from the identified studies. Moreover, for each scenario, PPK parameters with the longest and
 105 shortest elimination half-life ($T_{1/2}$) in the identified studies were employed for further investigation. $T_{1/2}$
 106 was calculated using Eq. 1, and the time-concentration profile was calculated using Eq. 2.

107
$$T_{1/2} = \frac{0.693 \times V}{CL} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

108

109
$$C_n = \frac{k_a \cdot F \cdot X_0}{V \cdot (k_a - \frac{CL}{V})} \left[\left(\frac{1 - e^{-\frac{CL}{V} \cdot n \cdot \tau}}{1 - e^{-\frac{CL}{V} \cdot \tau}} \cdot e^{-\frac{CL}{V} \cdot t} \right) - \left(\frac{1 - e^{-k_a \cdot n \cdot \tau}}{1 - e^{-k_a \cdot \tau}} \cdot e^{-k_a \cdot t} \right) \right] \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

110

111 where k_a represents the absorption rate constant, $T_{1/2}$, represents elimination half-life, F represents
 112 the bioavailability, X_0 represents the dose amount, CL represents the clearance, V represents the
 113 volume of distribution, n represents the number of times the doses were administered, τ represents the

114 dosing interval, and t represents the time after the last dose.

115 Regularly scheduled, adherent VPA dosing with its' corresponding steady-state plasma

116 concentrations were simulated for reference, followed by simulation of the perturbation of steady-state

117 concentrations that occurs with various delays in time or non-adherence to the regimen.

118 **2.3.1 Non-adherence Scenarios and remedial strategies**

119 The delayed-dose scenarios for each medication regimen were 1~12 h of delay for each 12 h

120 (q12h) dosing regimen or 1~24 h of delay for each 24 h (q24h) dosing regimen. Scenarios with one and

121 two missed doses were evaluated for each medication. When a delayed dose occurred, the four

122 remedial strategies listed below were investigated.

123 Strategy A: a partial dose or a regular dose is taken immediately, and the regular dose is taken at the

124 next scheduled time.

125 Strategy B: the regular dose is taken immediately, followed by a partial dose at the next scheduled

126 time.

127 Strategy C: the combination of regular dose and a partial dose are taken immediately, the next

128 scheduled time is skipped, and the regular dose is then taken at the subsequent scheduled time.

129 Strategy D: double doses are taken when missed one two doses and the regular dose is taken at the

130 subsequent scheduled time.

131 In considering the tablet size (extended-release tablet, Depakote ER®) and the convenience of

132 patients, the remedial dosage was designed to change by 250 mg (half of 500 mg tablet) for optional

133 remedial dosing regimen. Regarding syrup, dosage could be more flexible for remedial regimens.

134 **2.3.2 Criteria to select the optimal remedial regimen**

135 The individual therapeutic range, defined as the concentration that produced the best response in an

136 individual patient, was considered to be the interval delineated by the 5th-percentile trough concentration
137 and the 95th-percentile peak concentration for each regimen based on the guidelines for therapeutic drug
138 monitoring of AEDs [10, 19, 20].

139 The deviation time was estimated for each scenario and remedial regimen and it is defined as the
140 time outside the individual therapeutic range which is the sum of sub-therapeutic and supra-therapeutic
141 concentrations. The regimen with the shortest deviation time was considered the most appropriate
142 remedial regimen. If the difference in deviation time between competing regimens was less than 0.5 h,
143 those regimens were considered equivalent.

144 **2.4 Sensitivity analysis**

145 Previous studies have shown that weight has a significant effect on the clearance of VPA in both
146 paediatric, adult and older patients[21-26]. In addition, when monotherapy is unsuccessful, combination
147 therapy is usually tried in an attempt to improve efficacy, tolerability or both. Combination therapy was
148 used in 79% of adults and 75% of children [27]. The concomitant drugs in poly-therapy may be inducers
149 of VPA or inhibitors [21, 24]. Moreover, the k_a values in the previous PPK models of VPA were fixed.
150 Dosing intervals in our simulations were also fixed and may not accurately reflect real clinical scenarios.

151 Therefore, it is very helpful to perform a sensitivity analysis to investigate the effect of weight, k_a ,
152 dosing interval and concomitant use of other AEDs on the concentration-time profile and dosage
153 recommendation in the event of non-adherence[28]. Non-adherent patient missing one dose were
154 assessed by sensitivity analysis. Moreover, for simplicity, we change one parameter at a time and
155 investigate the impact on the deviation time and optimal remedial regimen
156

157 **3 Results**

158 **3.1 Typical patients and dose regimens**

159 Seven typical dose regimens were employed to examine the effects of non-adherence on the
160 pharmacokinetic profile and to design the remedial dose regimen. We investigated extended-release
161 tablets for paediatric, adult and older patients as well as syrup for paediatric patients. The detailed dosing
162 regimens are listed in Table 1.

163 **3.2 Population pharmacokinetic characteristics**

164 We identified 11 eligible PPK studies from which to extract the PPK characteristics of VPA [21-
165 26, 29-33]. The screening process is presented in Supplementary Text S1. Five studies were conducted
166 in paediatric patients [21, 23, 25, 30, 33]; 2 studies in adults [24, 26]; 1 study in elderly patients [29]; 2
167 studies in both adult and elderly patients [22, 32]; and 1 study in paediatric, adults and elderly patients
168 [31]. Moreover, five studies were conducted in East Asia (China and Japan), 3 in Europe, 2 in the US
169 and 1 in Mexico. The details of each study are summarized in Supplementary Table S1.

170 The longest and shortest $T_{1/2}$ in the eligible studies are listed in Table 1. $T_{1/2}$ ranged from 8.62 to
171 23.72 h for infant and paediatric patients and 9.36 to 15.41 h for adult and elderly patients.

172 **3.3 Effect of delayed or missed doses**

173 The results of the Monte Carlo simulation showed that the percentage of subjects outside their
174 individual therapeutic ranges for VPA was related to the delay time, daily dose and $T_{1/2}$ (Fig. 1). The
175 risk of patients being in the sub-therapeutic range increased with delay time. For example, for 70-kg
176 adult patients the shortest $T_{1/2}$ (9.23 h) who received the VPA 500 mg q12h regimen [24], the
177 percentage of subjects in the sub-therapeutic range was 12% and 22% when the dose was delayed for
178 up to 4 and 8 h, respectively (Fig. 1a).

179 The patients who received higher doses of VPA had a higher risk of being outside the individual

180 therapeutic range than did the patients who received lower doses. For example, in 70-kg adult patients
181 with the shortest $T_{1/2}$ (9.23 h) [24], the percentages of subjects in the sub-therapeutic range were
182 42.6%, 54% and 65% for a dosing delay of up to 24 h from the scheduled time for the 500 mg, 750 mg
183 and 1000 mg q12h regimens, respectively (Fig. 1b).

184 Moreover, patients with longer $T_{1/2}$ have a higher risk of being outside the individual therapeutic
185 range than patients with shorter $T_{1/2}$. For instance, the percentages of subjects in sub-therapeutic range
186 was 65% for 70-kg adult patients with $T_{1/2}$ of 15.41 h who delayed 24 h for 500 mg q12h[31]. And the
187 percentage was 42% for adult patients with $T_{1/2}$ of 9.23 h[24].

188 **3.4 Remedial dosing regimen**

189 The dosing recommendations for remedial treatment after delayed and missed doses are shown in
190 Table 2. The results show that remedial dosing recommendations was related to the delay time and
191 daily dose. We have also developed a tool that can be used to check remedy dose regimens under
192 different scenarios. (Supplementary tool). If one dose was delayed, one of four remedial strategies with
193 the same total remedial dose could be used.

194 Strategies A and B for remedial dosing were almost pharmacokinetically equivalent, while
195 strategy C had a larger deviation time than either of the others regardless of the patients' age and dosing
196 interval (Fig. 2). For example, if a dose was delayed 8 h, a 70-kg adult patient receiving VPA on the
197 500 mg q12h regimen could receive 250 mg immediately and 500 mg at the next scheduled dosing time
198 (strategy A) or 500 mg immediately and 250 mg at the next scheduled dosing (strategy B). The
199 deviation times were 9.2 h for strategy A and 8.7 h for strategy B. If the patient was administered 750
200 mg immediately and skipped the next scheduled dose (strategy C), the deviation time was 12.4 h.
201 Strategy C was recommended only when the delayed dose was close to the next scheduled dose (e.g.,
202 delay time > 10 h for the q12h regimen or delay time > 20 h for the q24h regimen).

203 With increasing delays from the scheduled dosing time, there was a decrease in the total remedial
204 dose necessary to minimize the deviation time from the individual therapeutic range. For example,
205 consider a 70-kg adult patient receiving VPA on the 500 mg q12h regimen and achieving a satisfactory
206 therapeutic outcome. If a dose was delayed 2 h, the patient could be administered 500 mg immediately
207 and 500 mg at the next scheduled dosing time, i.e., a total of 1000 mg would be administered. If a dose
208 was delayed for 10 h, patients should be administered 250 mg immediately and 500 mg at the next
209 scheduled dose (or 500 mg immediately and 250 mg at the next scheduled dose), i.e., a total of 750 mg
210 would be administered (Fig. 3). In this situation, if a total of remedial dose of 1000 mg (500 mg
211 immediately and 500 mg at the next scheduled dose) was taken, deviation time over the upper limit of
212 individual therapeutic range was much longer than that of a total 750 mg remedial dose (7 h vs 0 h),
213 whereas deviation times below the lower limit of individual therapeutic range between 750 mg and
214 1000 mg remedial dose were close (12.1 versus 10.2 h).

215 Moreover, patients should avoid taking double doses when they miss a dose. If two doses were
216 missed, double doses are recommended for most scenarios.

217 **3.5 Sensitivity analysis**

218 The influence of weight, for instance, 2.5 kg to 50 kg for paediatric patients and 50 kg to 100 kg
219 for adult and elder patients, on the remedial recommendations was investigated. The effect of
220 concomitant medications on the time-concentration profile of VPA was investigated by changing the
221 $T_{1/2} \pm 50\%$. The influence of k_a was studied by changing $\pm 50\%$ values of k_a in the population PK
222 models of VPA. Dosing intervals of 10, 14, 22 and 26 hours were also assessed in relation to the
223 remedial recommendations. Detailed sensitivity analysis settings are presented in Table 3 and
224 supplementary Table S2.

225 The results are presented in Supplementary Figure S1. The results show that weight, k_a , $T_{1/2}$,

226 concomitant medications and dosing intervals could change deviation time, but have no significant
227 impact on the proper remedial regimen when patient miss one dose.

228 **4 Discussion**

229 For the first time, we systematically established remedial regimens for missed or delayed doses of
230 VPA by Monte Carlo simulation. Compared to previous studies using the conventional PK approach,
231 our study fully considered the effects of between-subject variability, residual variability and covariates
232 on remedial dosing recommendations. Moreover, when performing the Monte Carlo simulation for
233 each scenario, we chose two sets of PPK models – those with the longest and the shortest $T_{1/2}$ among
234 all previous population analyses across different countries. This approach helps to determine the range
235 of remedial doses and could improve the applicability of our method to patients with various PK
236 characteristics of VPA.

237 Moreover, we employed the individual therapeutic range instead of a fixed reference range to
238 investigate the effect of delayed or missed doses [11, 34]. Previous retrospective and observational
239 studies suggest that the reference ranges for VPA are 50-100 mg/L. However, the reference range has
240 been a controversial concept because it was initially defined on the basis of limited data for individual
241 AEDs, which may not adequately describe the concentration-response relationship in patients with
242 epilepsy [1, 20]. The tendency in epilepsy treatment is changing from reference ranges to individual
243 therapeutic ranges [19, 20]. The latter can be defined as the concentration (or range of concentrations)
244 that has been empirically found to produce the optimal response in the individual patient. Therefore, in
245 our study, the individual therapeutic range was used instead of the reference range, which was
246 employed in previous studies to assess the effect of missed or delayed doses and to make remedial dose
247 recommendations.

248 In this study, we proposed four treatment strategies for different clinical scenarios and conducted
249 detailed investigations. Strategy A is most appropriate for patients who have a low seizure frequency
250 because the concentration returns gradually to the individual therapeutic range, and these patients

251 might have a higher risk of breakthrough seizures than other strategies. In contrast, strategy B allows
252 the VPA concentration to return quickly to the individual therapeutic range, which is more suitable for
253 patients with epilepsy who have a high seizure frequency. However, strategy B may cause more
254 concentration-related adverse effects such as headache, dizziness, nausea, and emesis than strategy A.
255 Strategy C resulted in a greater fluctuation in VPA concentration than did either of the other strategies
256 and should be used only for patients who are unable to take the next planned dose as specified or who
257 are near the next scheduled dosing time. Strategy D is not recommended for most of the non-adherent
258 scenarios, especially when patients miss one dose, which is consistent with the approved label by
259 FDA[6]. Strategy D may be only applied for the patients who miss two doses. The clinician can choose
260 the best remedial strategy based on the patient's condition.

261 There are still several limitations. The k_a of extended-release tablets reported in the classical PK
262 studies is lower than that investigated in the previous population PK studies. (0.18 \pm 0.19 versus 0.23 –
263 1.9) [35], The current evidence may not fully cover these scenarios[36, 37]. The impact of extended-
264 release tablets needs further investigation. Moreover, the dose recommendation in the current study was
265 based on typical patients. Physicians should carefully consider the risk of toxicity after patients take a
266 remedial dose in cases of delayed a dose, especially in paediatric, pregnant and elderly patients.

267

268 **5 Conclusions**

269 This study reported a systematic investigation of remedial dosing recommendations for delayed or
270 missed doses of VPA in patients with epilepsy using Monte Carlo simulation. We proposed four
271 remedial strategies for patients delayed or missed doses. The optimal strategy for non-adherent patient
272 is depended on delay time and daily dose. Based on Monte Carlo simulations, we suggest to take the
273 delayed dose when it is remembered within 3 hours and resume the regular regimen. If the patient

274 remembers the dose over 3 hours but before the next dose, we suggest to take a partial dose
275 immediately and a regular dose at the next scheduled time or a regular dose immediately followed by a
276 partial dose at the next scheduled time. When missed one dose, patients should avoid double dosing.
277 Clinicians should always evaluate patients' situation and select the optimal regimen based on the
278 clinical status of patients.

279 **Acknowledgements**

280 We thank Dr Xun-yi Wu from the Department of Neurology, Huashan Hospital, Fudan University, for
281 helpful discussions on defining typical patients and dose regimens. We thank Ph.D. candidate Xin-yi
282 Zheng for double-checking the reference retrieval. We thank Wei-wei Lin and Jason H. Williams for
283 details about their published model. Thanks to Yi-wei Yin for the manuscript revision. Part of this work
284 was presented at The American Conference on Pharmacometrics 2015 (ACoP6) on October 3 to 8, 2015,
285 in Crystal City, Virginia.

286 **Funding**

287 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China [No. 81573505]; and the
288 “Weak Discipline Construction Project” from the Shanghai Municipal Commission of Health and Family
289 Planning [No. 2016ZB0301-01].

290 **Declaration of interest**

291 None.

292 **Supplementary data**

293 **Supplementary Text S1.** Detailed literature search process

294 **Supplementary Figure. S1.** Sensitivity analysis of patients administered VPA on monotherapy at steady

295 state and miss one dose. (a) 120 mg q12h (8 months, 8 kg), (b) 240 mg q12h (5 years, 16 kg), (c) 500 mg

296 q12h (10 years, 30 kg), (d) 500 mg q24h (6 years, 20 kg), (e) 500 mg q12h (30 years, 70 kg), (f) 750 mg

297 q12h (70 years, 70 kg) and (g) 1000 mg q12h (50 years, 70 kg).

298 **Supplementary Table S1.** A summary of published population pharmacokinetic studies of VPA in

299 patients with epilepsy.

300 **Supplementary Table S2.** Population pharmacokinetic characteristic of VPA for Monte Carlo

301 simulations

302 **Supplementary tool:** Remedial dosing recommendations for delayed or missed doses of VPA.

References

- [1] Patsalos PN, Spencer EP, Berry DJ. Therapeutic drug monitoring of antiepileptic drugs in epilepsy: a 2018 update. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2018;40(5): 526-548. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FTD.0000000000000546>
- [2] Manjunath R, Davis KL, Candrilli SD, Ettinger AB. Association of antiepileptic drug nonadherence with risk of seizures in adults with epilepsy. *Epilepsy Behav.* 2009;14(2): 372-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yebeh.2008.12.006>
- [3] Faught E, Duh MS, Weiner JR, Guerin A, Cunningham MC. Nonadherence to antiepileptic drugs and increased mortality: findings from the RANSOM Study. *Neurology.* 2008;71(20): 1572-8. <https://doi.org/10.1212/01.wnl.0000319693.10338.b9>
- [4] Cramer JA, Glassman M, Rienzi V. The relationship between poor medication compliance and seizures. *Epilepsy Behav.* 2002;3(4): 338-342. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1525-5050\(02\)00037-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1525-5050(02)00037-9)
- [5] Davis KL, Candrilli SD, Edin HM. Prevalence and cost of nonadherence with antiepileptic drugs in an adult managed care population. *Epilepsia.* 2008;49(3): 446-54. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1528-1167.2007.01414.x>
- [6] Depakene®. [package insert]. North Chicago, Illinois; AbbVie Inc. In; 2019.
- [7] Johannessen CU, Johannessen SI. Valproate: past, present, and future. *CNS Drug Rev.* 2003;9(2): 199-216. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1527-3458.2003.tb00249.x>
- [8] Landmark CJ. Antiepileptic drugs in non-epilepsy disorders: relations between mechanisms of action and clinical efficacy. *CNS Drugs.* 2008;22(1): 27-47. <https://doi.org/10.2165/00023210-200822010-00003>
- [9] Fisher RS. The New Classification of Seizures by the International League Against Epilepsy 2017. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep.* 2017;17(6): 48. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11910-017-0758-6>
- [10] Ding JJ, Zhang YJ, Jiao Z, Wang Y. The effect of poor compliance on the pharmacokinetics of carbamazepine and its epoxide metabolite using Monte Carlo simulation. *Acta Pharmacol Sin.* 2012;33(11): 1431-40. <https://doi.org/10.1038/aps.2012.135>
- [11] Ahmad AM, Douglas Boudinot F, Barr WH, Reed RC, Garnett WR. The use of Monte Carlo simulations to study the effect of poor compliance on the steady state concentrations of valproic acid following administration of enteric-coated and extended release divalproex sodium formulations. *Biopharm Drug Dispos.* 2005;26(9): 417-25. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bdd.473>
- [12] Bonate PL. A brief introduction to Monte Carlo simulation. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2001;40(1): 15-22. <https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-200140010-00002>
- [13] Kroese DP, Taimre T, Botev ZI. *Handbook of monte carlo methods*: John Wiley & Sons; 2013.
- [14] Kiang TK, Sherwin CM, Spigarelli MG, Ensom MH. Fundamentals of Population Pharmacokinetic Modelling. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2012;51(8): 515-525. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03261928>
- [15] Gu J-q, Guo Y-p, Jiao Z, Ding J-j, Li G-F. How to Handle Delayed or Missed Doses: A Population Pharmacokinetic Perspective. *Eur J Drug Metab Pharmacokinet.* 2019: 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13318-019-00598-0>
- [16] Scheffer IE, Berkovic S, Capovilla G, Connolly MB, French J, Guilhoto L, et al. ILAE classification of the epilepsies: position paper of the ILAE Commission for Classification and Terminology. *Epilepsia.* 2017;58(4): 512-521. <https://doi.org/10.1111/epi.13709>
- [17] de Onis M, Onyango AW, Borghi E, Garza C, Yang H. Comparison of the World Health Organization (WHO) Child Growth Standards and the National Center for Health Statistics/WHO international growth reference: implications for child health programmes. *Public Health Nutr.* 2006;9(7): 942-7. <https://doi.org/10.1017/phn20062005>
- [18] Moher D, Shamseer L, Clarke M, Ghersi D, Liberati A, Petticrew M, et al. Preferred

reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. *Syst Rev.* 2015;4: 1. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2046-4053-4-1>

[19] Perucca E. Is there a role for therapeutic drug monitoring of new anticonvulsants? *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2000;38(3): 191-204. <https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-200038030-00001>

[20] Patsalos PN, Berry DJ, Bourgeois BF, Cloyd JC, Glauser TA, Johannessen SI, et al. Antiepileptic drugs-best practice guidelines for therapeutic drug monitoring: a position paper by the subcommission on therapeutic drug monitoring, ILAE Commission on Therapeutic Strategies. *Epilepsia.* 2008;49(7): 1239-76. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1528-1167.2008.01561.x>

[21] Serrano BB, Sanchez MG, Otero M, Buelga DS, Serrano J, Domínguez - Gil A. Valproate population pharmacokinetics in children. *J Clin Pharm Ther.* 1999;24(1): 73-80. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2710.1999.00202.x>

[22] Serrano BB, Otero MJ, Buelga DS, Sanchez MJG, Serrano J, Gil AD. Population estimation of valproic acid clearance in adult patients using routine clinical pharmacokinetic data. *Biopharm Drug Dispos.* 1999;20(5): 233-40. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(sici\)1099-081x\(199907\)20:5<233::aid-bdd179>3.0.co;2-5](https://doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1099-081x(199907)20:5<233::aid-bdd179>3.0.co;2-5)

[23] Correa T, Rodríguez I, Romano S. Population pharmacokinetics of valproate in Mexican children with epilepsy. *Biopharm Drug Dispos.* 2008;29(9): 511-520. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bdd.636>

[24] Vucicevic K, Miljkovic B, Pokrajac M, Prostran M, Martinovic Z, Grabnar I. The influence of drug-drug interaction and patients' characteristics on valproic acid's clearance in adults with epilepsy using nonlinear mixed effects modeling. *Eur J Pharm Sci.* 2009;38(5): 512-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejps.2009.09.017>

[25] Williams JH, Jayaraman B, Swoboda KJ, Barrett JS. Population pharmacokinetics of valproic acid in pediatric patients with epilepsy: considerations for dosing spinal muscular atrophy patients. *J Clin Pharmacol.* 2012;52(11): 1676-1688. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091270011428138>

[26] Lin WW, Jiao Z, Wang CL, Wang HY, Ma CL, Huang PF, et al. Population pharmacokinetics of valproic acid in adult Chinese epileptic patients and its application in an individualized dosage regimen. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2015;37(1): 76-83. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FTD.0000000000000100>

[27] Malerba A, Ciampa C, De Fazio S, Fattore C, Frassine B, La Neve A, et al. Patterns of prescription of antiepileptic drugs in patients with refractory epilepsy at tertiary referral centres in Italy. *Epilepsy Res.* 2010;91(2-3): 273-82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eplepsyres.2010.08.002>

[28] Bonate PL. *Pharmacokinetic-Pharmacodynamic Modeling and Simulation*: Springer, Boston, MA; 2011.

[29] Birnbaum AK, Ahn JE, Brundage RC, Hardie NA, Conway JM, Leppik IE. Population pharmacokinetics of valproic acid concentrations in elderly nursing home residents. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2007;29(5): 571-575. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FTD.0b013e31811f3296>

[30] Jiang DC, Wang L, Wang YQ, Li L, Lu W, Bai XR. Population pharmacokinetics of valproate in Chinese children with epilepsy. *Acta Pharmacol Sin.* 2007;28(10): 1677. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-7254.2007.00704.x>

[31] Jiang Dc, Bai Xr, Zhang Qx, Lu W, Wang Yq, Li L, et al. Effects of CYP2C19 and CYP2C9 genotypes on pharmacokinetic variability of valproic acid in Chinese epileptic patients: nonlinear mixed-effect modeling. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol.* 2009;65(12): 1187. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00228-009-0712-x>

[32] Ogusu N, Saruwatari J, Nakashima H, Noai M, Nishimura M, Deguchi M, et al. Impact of the superoxide dismutase 2 Val16Ala polymorphism on the relationship between valproic acid exposure and elevation of γ -glutamyltransferase in patients with epilepsy: a population pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic analysis. *PLoS One.* 2014;9(11): e111066. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0111066>

[33] Ding JJ, Wang Y, Lin W, Wang C, Zhao L, Li X, et al. A population pharmacokinetic model of valproic acid in pediatric patients with epilepsy: a non-linear pharmacokinetic

model based on protein-binding saturation. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2015;54(3): 305-317.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s40262-014-0212-8>

[34] Dutta S, Reed RC. Effect of delayed and/or missed enteric-coated divalproex doses on valproic acid concentrations: simulation and dose replacement recommendations for the clinician. *J Clin Pharm Ther.* 2006;31(4): 321-9.<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2710.2006.00739.x>

[35] Dutta S, Reed R, O'Dea R. Comparative Absorption Profiles of Divalproex Sodium Delayed-Release versus Extended-Release Tablets—Clinical Implications. *Ann Pharmacother.* 2006;40: 619-25.<https://doi.org/10.1345/aph.1G617>

[36] Reed R, Dutta S. Predicted serum valproic acid concentrations in patients missing and replacing a dose of extended-release divalproex sodium. *Am J Health Syst Pharm.* 2004;61: 2284-9.<https://doi.org/10.1093/ajhp/61.21.2284>

[37] Dutta S, Reed R. Predicted plasma valproic acid concentrations in patients missing and replacing a full daily dose of extended-release divalproex sodium. *Am J Health Syst Pharm.* 2006;63: 904-6.<https://doi.org/10.2146/ajhp050147>

Figure legends

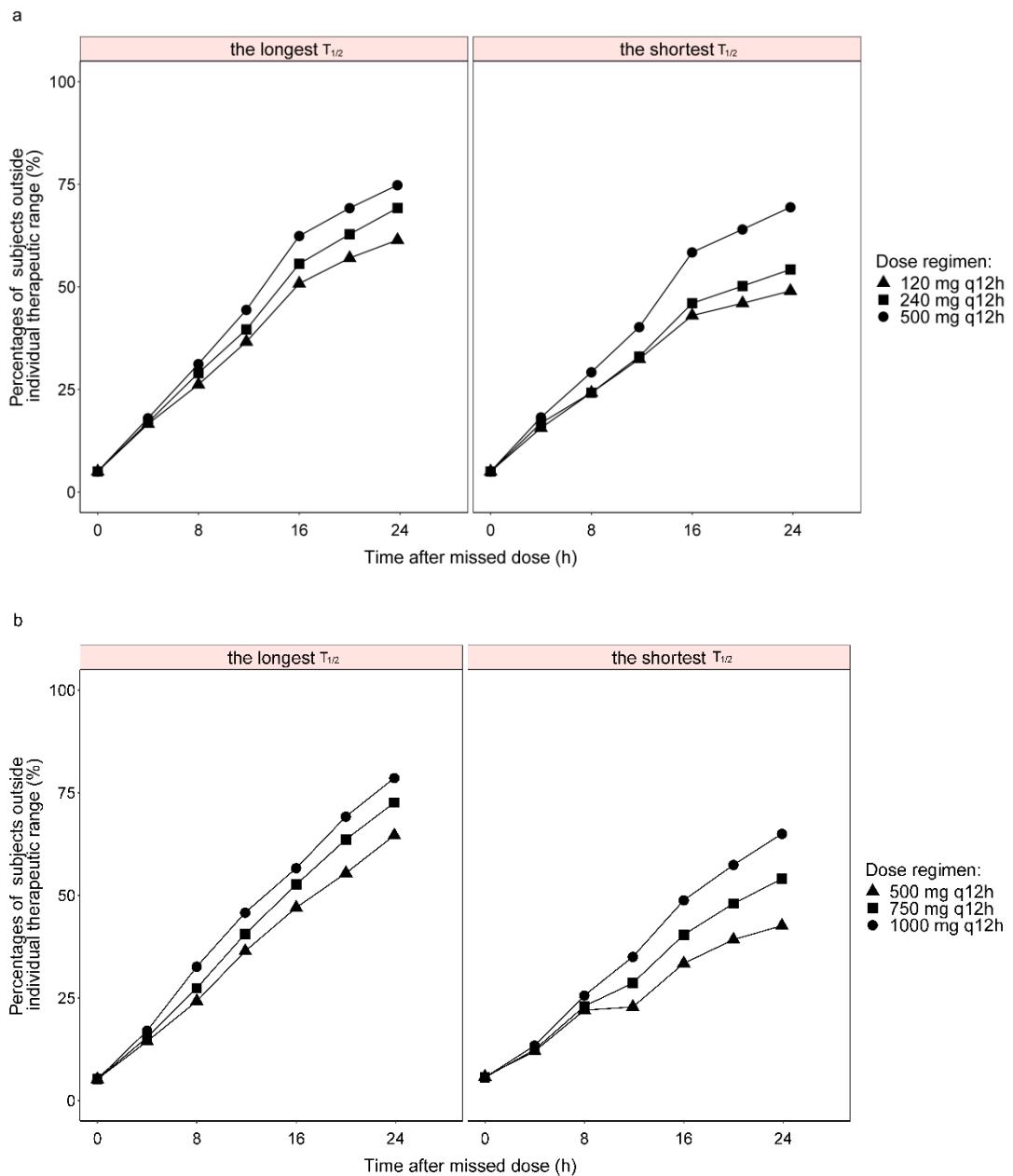
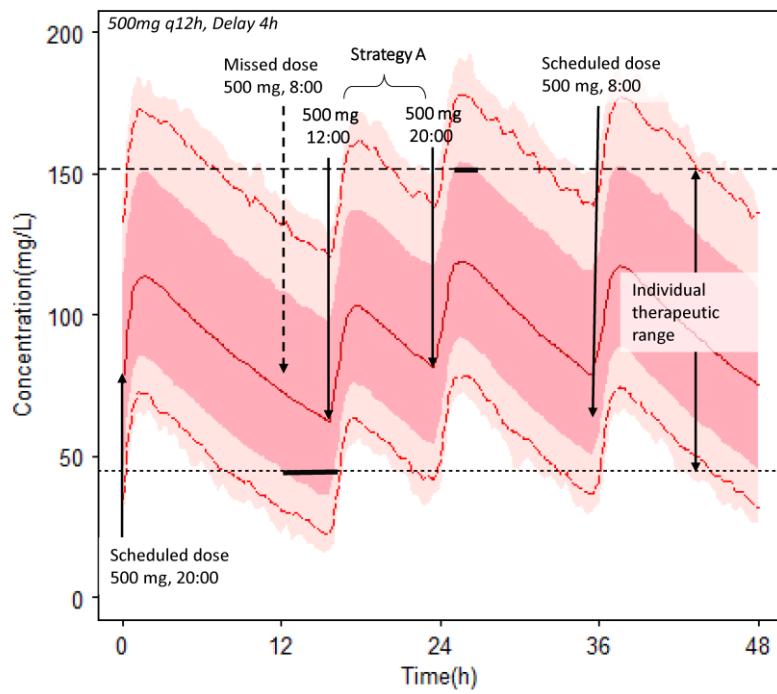
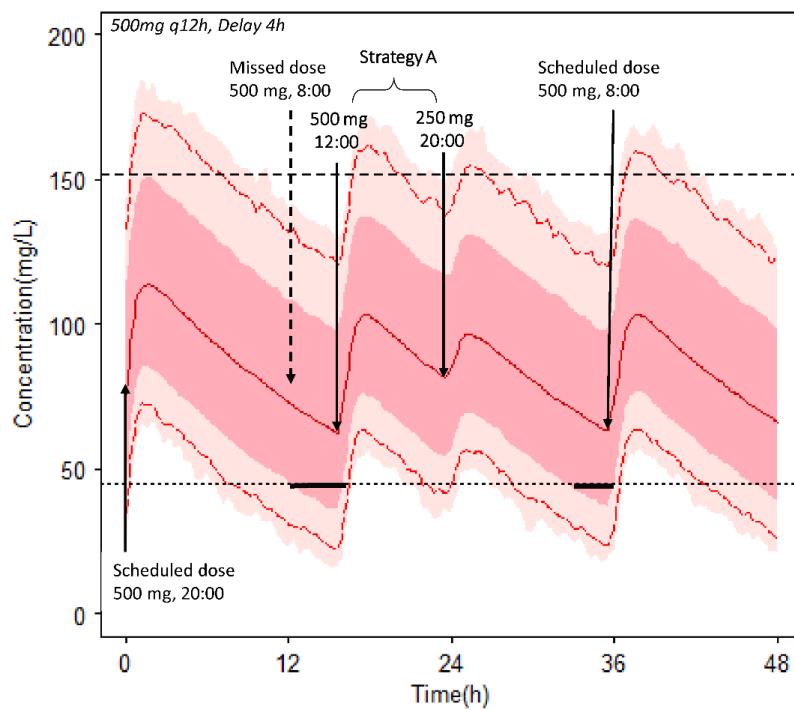


Fig. 1. Percentage of subjects outside their individual therapeutic ranges after the last dose.

(a) Children with the longest and shortest elimination half-life ($T_{1/2}$) taking 120 mg q12h (8 months, 8 kg), 240 mg q12h (5 years, 16 kg) and 500 mg q12h (10 years, 30 kg). (b) Adults with the shortest and longest $T_{1/2}$ taking 500 mg q12h (30 years, 70 kg), 750 mg q12h (50 years, 70 kg) and 1000 mg q12h (70 years, 70 kg). All simulated patients have VPA monotherapy at steady state.

a**b**

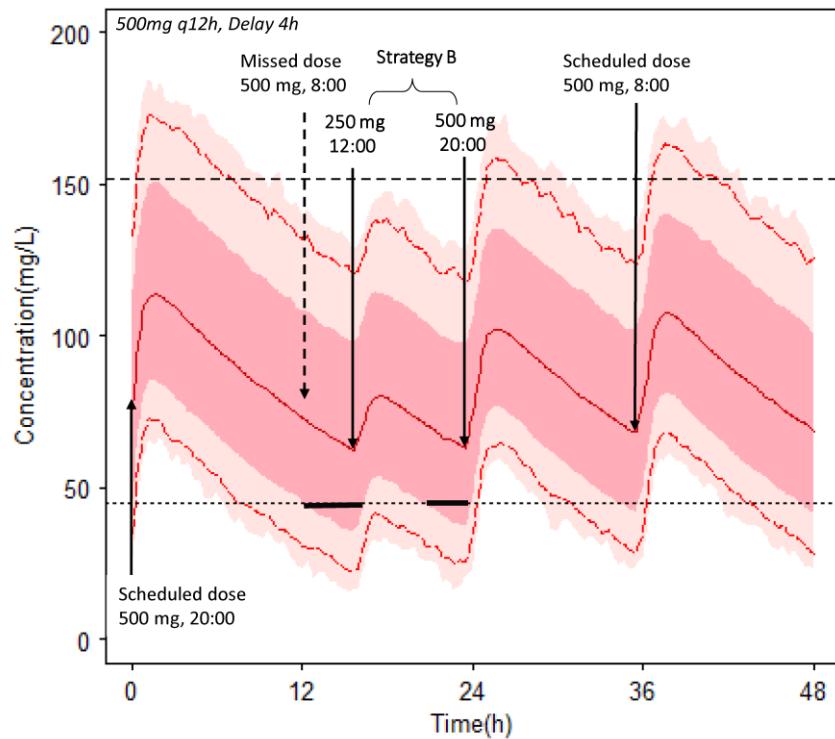
c

Fig. 2. Three remedial strategies identified for 70-kg adults taking 500 mg q12h, simulated by with the longest elimination half-life ($T_{1/2}$).

(a) Full adherence. (b) Remedial dosing using strategies A, B (panel c), and C (panel d) when the dose was delayed up to 10 h. All simulated patients have VPA monotherapy at steady state. The dark pink shadow represents the distribution of the 5th - 95th percentiles of the simulated concentrations, and the light pink shadows represent the distribution of the simulated concentrations outside the 5th–95th percentiles in the remaining virtual subjects. The solid red line represents the median of the simulated concentrations, and the dotted lines represent the 0.5th and 99.5th percentiles of the simulated concentrations. The dotted black lines represent the individual therapeutic range of the 5th-percentile trough concentration and 95th-percentile of peak concentration (48 - 151 mg/L). The horizontal black solid line represents the deviation time.

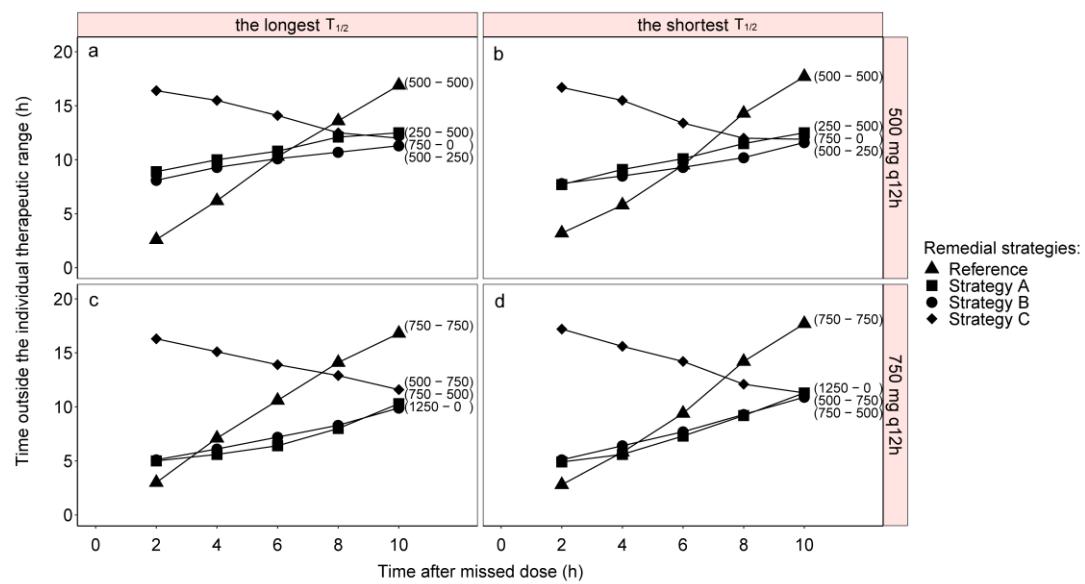


Fig. 3. Comparison of deviation time for different strategies when a 70-kg adult patient at steady state delayed a dose from 0 h to 10 h.

Adults taking monotherapy of VPA by 500 mg q12h (a) or 750 mg q12h (c) were simulated by the model with the longest elimination half-life ($T_{1/2}$: 15.41 h). Adults taking 500 mg q12h (b) or 750 mg q12h (d) were simulated by the model with the shortest $T_{1/2}$ (9.36 h). The values in parentheses are the dose taken immediately followed by the dose taken at the next scheduled dosing time.

Table 1. Settings of patient characteristics, dosing regimens and elimination half-life used in the simulations.

Age	Body weight (kg)	Formulation	Dose (mg)	Dosing interval (h)	T _{1/2} (h) ^a	
					shortest	longest
Children						
8 months	8	syrup	120	12	8.62	9.16
5 years	16	syrup	240	12	8.75	11.27
6 years	20	ER-tablet	500	24	9.36	16.24
10 years	30	ER-tablet	500	12	10.52	13.14
Adults						
30 years	70	ER-tablet	500	12	9.23	15.41
50 years	70	ER-tablet	1000	12	9.23	14.21
Elderly						
70 years	70	ER-tablet	750	12	11.48	13.19

a, T_{1/2}, elimination half-life, $T_{1/2} = \frac{0.693 \times V}{CL}$. All simulated patients have VPA monotherapy at steady state. ER tablet, extended-release tablet.

Table 2. Dosing recommendations after delayed or missed doses of valproic acid.

Regimen ^a	Delay time (h)	Remedial Strategy and dose recommendation (mg) ^b
Children		
120-mg q12h (8 month, 8 kg)	0-4	A (120–120)
	4-6	A (120–120); A (80–120); B (120–80)
	6-10	A (80–120); B (120–80)
	10-12	A (80–120); B (120–80); A (40–120); B (120–40); C (160–0)
	12	C (160)
	24	C (200)
240-mg q12h (5 years, 16 kg)	0-4	A (240–240)
	4-8	A (160–240); B (240–160)
	8-10	A (160–240); B (240–160); A (120–240); B (240–120)
	10-12	A (120–240); B (240–120); C (360–0)
	12	C (360)
	24	D (480)
500-mg q12h (10 years, 30 kg)	0-4	A (500–500)
	4-6	A (500–500); A (250–500); B (500–250)
	6-10	A (250–500); B (500–250)
	10-12	A (250–500); B (500–250); C (750–0)
	12	C (750)
	24	D (1000)
500-mg q24h (6 years, 20 kg)	0-8	A (500–500)
	8-16	A (500–500); A (250–500)
	16-20	A (500–500); A (250–500); B (500–250)
	20-24	A (250–500); B (500–250); C (750–0)
	24	C (750)
Adults		
500-mg q12h (70 kg)	0-6	A (500–500)
	6-8	A (500–500); A (250–500); B (500–250)
	8-10	A (250–500); B (500–250)
	10-12	A (250–500); B (500–250); C (750–0)
	12	C (750)
	24	D (1000)
1000-mg q12h (70 kg)	0-4	A (1000–1000)
	4-6	A (1000–1000); A (750–1000); B (1000–750)
	6-8	A (750–1000); B (1000–750)
	8-10	A (750–1000); B (1000–750); A (500–1000); B (1000–500)
	10-12	A (500–1000); B (1000–500); C (1500–0)
	12	C (1500)
	24	C (1750)
Elderly		
750-mg q12h (70 kg)	0-4	A (750–750)
	4-6	A (750–750); A (500–750); B (750–500)
	6-10	A (500–750); B (750–500)
	10-12	A (500–750); B (750–500); C (1250–0)
	12	C (1250)
	24	C (1250); D (1500)

a All simulated patients have VPA monotherapy at steady state.

b Four remedial strategies listed below were evaluated:

Strategy A: a partial dose or a regular dose is taken immediately, and the regular dose is taken at the next scheduled time.

Strategy B: the regular dose is taken immediately, followed by a partial dose at the next scheduled time.

Strategy C: the combination of regular dose and a partial dose are taken immediately, the next scheduled time is skipped, and the regular dose is then taken at the subsequent scheduled time.

Strategy D: double doses are taken when missed one dose or two doses and the regular dose is then taken at the subsequent scheduled time.

The values in parentheses for delayed dose are the dose taken immediately followed by the dose taken at the next scheduled dosing time. The values in parentheses for missed dose are the dose taken immediately. The most appropriate remedial regimen has the shortest deviation time. If the difference in deviation time between competing regimens was less than 0.5 h, those regimens were considered equivalent.

Table 3. Sensitivity analysis settings

Parameter	Setting
Weight	Children: 2.5 - 50 kg Adults: 50 - 100 kg
$T_{1/2}$ of concomitant medication	Children: 4.31 – 24.36 h Adults: 4.66 – 23.12 h
Absorption rate (Ka)	Children: 0.67 - 2.6 1/h Adults: 0.67 - 1.9 1/h
Dosing interval	10 - 14 h 14 - 10 h

a Patients co-administered VPA with an enzyme-inducing antiepileptic drug (e.g., carbamazepine, phenytoin or phenobarbital) were simulated by the shortest $T_{1/2}$. Those co-administrated with enzyme-inhibiting antiepileptic drug (e.g. topiramate or clobazam) were simulated by the longest $T_{1/2}$. Sensitivity analysis of patients administered VPA on monotherapy at steady state and miss one dose.